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THE COAST OF NORMANDY, IN FRANCE.



NEEDLES AT ETRETAT, NORMANDY.

We propose, on the present occasion, to conduct our readers in a ramble along that portion of the coast of Normandy in France, which is included between the rivers Somme and Seine, and take a slight glance at the principal objects which are presented to the traveller along that route.

The first place which we have to mention is *Abbeville**, a town situated on the river Somme, the eastern boundary of the extent of coast which we have selected. Abbeville is the chief town in an *arrondissement*, or district of the same name. It is strongly fortified, and the country around it can be easily inundated. It is built in the old-fashioned style, has several bridges, four squares, fourteen churches, one of them, St. Wolfram's, very antique and curious, about 3700 houses, and 19,000 inhabitants. It has long been the seat of the woollen manufacture; besides which there are manufactories for linen, cotton, soap, leather, and twine. The river is navigable by the help of the tides; and by it oil, linseed, and hemp, are exported. Mr. Ritchie observes:—

Like many other French towns, Abbeville is destitute even of the common guide-books, which at least furnish the traveller with a catalogue of what is to be seen. While talking on this subject with a bookseller, he gave me to understand, that such a work had been universally and

urgently demanded by strangers for many years past, but—and he shrugged his shoulders. We did not inquire into the *but*; but it too evidently meant that nobody had the spirit to do what everybody wanted, and would have paid handsomely for having done.

The old cathedral at Abbeville is very fine. The front is rich in Gothic ornaments, and the whole appearance of the edifice would be venerable and imposing, were it not for the mean and paltry dwellings which obstruct and offend the view, and come even in contact with the building itself. This complaint, however, is not peculiar to the cathedral of Abbeville. The interior is divided into three great aisles, each with an altar at the further end, and chapels at the sides. Abbeville is a tolerably clean little town; but the people seem accustomed to little more than a passing glimpse of strangers, on their way to or from Paris, and, to use the words of Mr. Ritchie, “take no pains to make themselves agreeable.” There are many beautiful walks about Abbeville: the promenade on the ramparts is very fine, especially in the evenings of early Summer, when a full chorus of thousands of nightingales produces, in combination with the surrounding scenery, a charming effect, which the writer of this article has often experienced.

Returning down to the mouth of the Somme, (Abbeville being situated some little distance up that

* See also Vol. XI., p. 10.

river) and proceeding westwards, the next place worthy of notice is the town of *Eu*. This little town is well worth seeing; it has two churches, and an hospital for the sick, attended, as is usual, in France, by the nuns of charity, or *Hospitalières*. *Eu* was formerly a place of some note, arising from the great power which Normandy possessed about the time that William, one of its dukes, invaded England, and became, what we now call him, William the Conqueror. The counts of *Eu* distinguished themselves by their valour: first, by fighting with Duke William in England, then by joining the Crusades in Palestine.

The finest church in *Eu*, that of *Nôtre Dame*, is extremely large, and of beautiful Gothic architecture. Near a side altar, dedicated to St. Laurent, stands a curious twisted column; it is remarkable that the capital of this column is the work of the thirteenth century, and the singular twisted shaft, with the base, that of the fifteenth. Mrs. Stothard says,—

We saw in this church a curious representation of Christ laid out; the figures carved in wood, and really well executed. Whilst we were looking at it, a poor woman brought her candle, lighted it, and placed it up before the image; she then threw some fine roses upon the figure of Christ, knelt down, and with closed eyes and clasped hands, appeared absorbed in devotion. Presently she arose, and after kissing the hands and feet of the image, quitted the altar.

In another church which the same lady visited at *Eu*, she saw an image of the virgin hanging above the altar. It was dressed out with peacock's feathers, dirty flowers, yellow petticoats, and a white veil.

We now pass on to *Dieppe**, the next sea-port town. It contains about three thousand houses and twenty thousand inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the commerce of the port. Being the best inlet for Paris, it is the great dépôt for colonial goods, and the resort of foreign ships, especially of those from America. There are many manufactures, but principally of the kind connected with the equipment of ships; and besides these, some sugar and salt refineries, and a large number of workers in ivory ornaments: the stranger is surprised at the number of large shops devoted to the sale of these articles. From this port William the Conqueror sailed with his forces for England. The little harbour is frequently studded with small fishing vessels. Mr. Ritchie observes,—

If the wind, as you enter the port, is tolerably favourable for leaving it, you will probably meet with a long line of these fishing craft driving out of the embouchure into the sea. The men lie lazily along the beams, dressed in red caps, blue or brown jackets, and little petticoats resembling loose small-clothes; while their vessel is dragged along by the women, singing in chorus, and keeping time with head and foot as they perform a kind of running march to the end of the pier. Here they throw the rope off their shoulders with a shrill shout, and stand for an instant to gaze after their husbands and brothers. These no sooner feel that they are fairly launched, than they start from their posture of lordly ease. It is then their turn. They fling out their immense mainsail to the wind, seize the trembling helm, and the little vessel, apparently empty even of ballast, goes dancing forth upon the waves.

If any of our readers are surprised at hearing that females are employed in the manner just described, we may remind them that French women of the lower class are employed in laborious occupations which an Englishman would not permit to his wife, sister, or daughter: we mention the fact, without professing to be able to account for it; but we have often seen in France female water-carriers, female ostlers, and female barbers. The latter *shave well* for a couple of sous, and the female ostlers may be seen about the ponderous *diligence* taking off the wheels and greasing the axles, while the men stand gazing

idly on. In the middle classes, too, female clerks and accountants are by no means uncommon.

The women of *Dieppe* are strongly-made, clear-complexioned, and tolerably handsome. The same weather which turns the cheeks of the men brown, turns theirs red; and in their blue or red petticoats, and caps fitted close to the head, they form rather pleasing specimens of fishermen's wives: nay, they are not only fishermen's wives, but fisherwomen. The sea is the men's province, and the land theirs. When the tide is ebbing, they may be seen in ranks, with bare feet and legs, pursuing steadily the retreating waves, and filling their baskets with shell-fish.

The streets of *Dieppe* are not accommodated for foot-passengers in the same manner as ours, but are paved all over alike, with common round stones; men, horses, and carts, press along them, and mingle together in confusion. The shops in the streets have no fronts at all, with the exception of a very few; they are quite open; the goods exposed for sale are placed on counters and suspended around the interior. The same lively writer before quoted, thus pictures a *table d'hôte* at *Dieppe*:—

My next neighbour at dinner was a French gentleman, of a most monstrous size, whose naturally fierce look was considerably augmented by a large pair of well-curled mustachios: he seemed a mixture of all kinds, and yet was neither decidedly bear, monkey, nor man. He wore, suspended by a little red riband, an ornamented cross; a kind of order as common in France as the title of esquire on the back of a letter in England, and often applied with as little just pretension. On the opposite side, sat an old beau of sixty, dressed in a sky-blue coat; his hands were scented, and his fingers covered with French-paste rings. Next to him a pretty lively woman, who conversed so familiarly with all the gentlemen, that I was greatly surprised to find she was an entire stranger at the board. Conversation seemed as much the object of attention as their repast; the whole party spoke together, and made a most unceasing voluble noise.

Proceeding a little further westward along the coast, we arrive at the sea-port town of *Fécamp*, which is situated at the mouth of the river *Seine*. It has a good tide-harbour, and contains rather more than a thousand houses. The inhabitants amount to about eight thousand, many of whom are employed in the herring and mackerel fisheries, some in ship-building, and others in the manufacture of sail-cloth, flannels, counterpanes, and tent-cloth.

Mr. Ritchie arrived at *Fécamp* on a Sunday, and describes the scene which presented itself to his eyes. In strolling along the wharf, the first group of persons he met consisted of elderly men, engaged in a game somewhat resembling the *skittles* of an English village; there was another group of younger men, and a third of children, all busily battering away at the same amusement. Further on there was a group of old women; then appeared the pride of the place, the maidens; then the girlhood; then the tottering infancy, all skittling, skittling, skittling. The short stick which is thrown from the hand, was adapted, in point of size and weight, to the age of the player; and every one, from the oldest to the youngest, was furnished with an instrument of the kind, his own property. It was evident, therefore, that this was the standing game of the place. This was not in the town of *Fécamp*, but at St. Valery, a short distance from it.

To the westward of *Fécamp* there are a number of little villages, exhibiting more or less of comfort and ease, and the inhabitants of many of which are employed in fishing. They are in a much better condition than formerly, for it is said that in the sixteenth century the Norman peasants were so poor that they lived almost wholly on oats, like the Scotch highlanders of the present day: the Bretons clothed

* See also Vol. IX., p. 105.

themselves in skins instead of cloth; in Perigaud and Limousin bread was a rarity, the common food being roots and greens; in the Bordelais and Beaune they were satisfied with millet-cakes; and in Lorraine, Forez, and Auvergne, they shared the habitations of their domestic animals, and regaled themselves throughout the year with salted goats' flesh and buck-wheat porridge.

In proceeding from Fécamp to Havre by land, the distance is but small; but in going round the coast by sea, it is considerable; and it is in this coasting that the voyager meets with those remarkable rocks called the *Needles of Etretât*, of which our frontispiece is a representation. They are situated near Cape d'Autifer, a bold headland stretching out into the sea. The coast is guarded not only by lofty cliffs, but by sand-banks, the formation of which, and of the less moveable masses which the French call *Galet*, is evidently caused by the action of the tide upon the cliffs; and the point of land called Cape d'Autifer, dividing the current of the channel, sends one half of these sandy deposits towards the Seine, and scatters the remainder upon the shores of Picardy.

We can very easily account, therefore, (as Mr. Ritchie observes,) for the constant danger in which the harbour of Fécamp stands of being filled up with sand; but it is less easy to imagine how the sea, at the very moment when it is grinding the rocks to powder, should be in the act of retiring to its depths, and abandoning a part of its empire to the land. This can only be explained, we should think, by supposing that it gradually dams itself in by the spoils it wrests from the solid earth, and that therefore the shore at the base of the cliff of Fécamp is considerably higher than it was in former days.

The needles of Etretât present evidence of the violent action of the sea, for the holes through them (which we may, perhaps, be allowed to call the *eyes* of the needles) have in all probability been formed by the constant abrading force of the waves, acting probably on some portions of their substance which are softer than others. Being situated at the bend where the English channel shapes its course towards the south-west, they are much exposed to the violence of the waves, and form a dangerous obstacle to ships which approach too near them.

A few miles further, we arrive at the end of our journey, by entering the mouth of the Seine, where is situated the important town of *Havre de Grace* (the Haven of Grace.) It contains a population of upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants, who carry on manufactures of earthenware, soap, tobacco, starch, vitriol, pitch, cordage, paper, cards, &c., besides several breweries, refineries, and ship-building yards. The wives of the humbler classes are much engaged in making lace.

The town consists of two parts, the *old quarter* and the *new quarter*, in the former of which the houses are ill-built, but in the latter they are regular and handsome; the streets are neat, well-watered, and well-lighted. There is an arsenal, a custom-house, a town-hall, an exchange, two churches, and a theatre; there is also a handsome square, planted with trees, and forming a public walk. At Cape la Hève, a headland about one hundred and thirty yards high, at the mouth of the Seine, two miles and a half west of the town, are two handsome light-houses, about fifty feet high; and there is also a brilliant harbour-light at the entrance to the port.

There is a subordinate court of justice, and a court of commercial disputes, in Havre; also a public library of fifteen thousand volumes, and other literary establishments. But the principal importance of the place is derived from its commerce, as it is a port where nearly all foreign productions destined for the

use of Paris are landed; the imports amounting to ten millions sterling per annum.

We must now take our leave of the Norman coast. We may, at some future period, describe other towns bordering to the westward of those which have occupied the present papers.

TO THE WEATHERCOCK.

THE dawn has broke, the morn is up, another day begun,
And there thy poised and gilded spear is flashing in the sun,
Upon that steep and lofty tower where thou thy watch has kept,

A true and faithful sentinel, while all around thee slept.

For years, upon thee there has poured the summer's noon-day heat,

And through the long, dark, starless night, the winter storms have beat;

But yet thy duty has been done, by day and night the same;
Still thou hast watched and met the storm, whichever way it came.

No chilling blast in wrath has swept along the distant heaven,
But thou hast watch upon it kept, and instant warning given;
And when midsummer's sultry beams oppress all living things,
Thou dost foretell each breeze that comes with health upon its wings.

How oft I've seen, at early dawn, or twilight's quiet hour,
The swallows, in their joyous glee, come darting round thy tower,

As if, with thee, to hail the sun, and catch his earliest light,
And offer ye the morn's salute, or bid ye both—good night.

And when around thee, or above, no breath of air has stirred,
Thou seem'st to watch the circling flight of each free, happy bird;

Till, after twittering round thy head, in many a mazy track,
The whole delighted company have settled on thy back.

Then, if perchance amid their mirth, a gentle breeze has sprung,

And prompt to mark its first approach, thy eager form has swung,

I've thought I almost heard thee say, as far aloft they flew,
'Now all away!—here ends our play, for I have work to do!'

Men slander thee, my honest friend, and call thee, in their pride,

An emblem of their fickleness, thou ever-faithful guide!

Each weak, unstable human mind a 'weathercock' they call;
And thus, unthinkingly, mankind abuse thee, one and all.

They have no right to make thy name a by-word for their deeds:

They change their friends, their principles, their fashions, and their creeds;

While thou hast ne'er, like them, been known thus causelessly to range,

But when thou *changest sides*, canst give good reason for the change.

Thou, like some lofty soul, whose course the thoughtless oft condemn,

Art touched by many airs from heaven which never breathe on them;

And moved by many impulses which they do never know,
Who, 'round their earth-bound circles, plod the dusty paths below.

Through one more dark and cheerless night thou well hast kept thy trust,

And now in glory o'er thy head the morning light has burst:
And unto earth's true watcher, thus, when his dark hours have passed,

Will come 'the day-spring from on high,' to cheer his path at last.

Bright symbol of *fidelity*, still may I think of thee;
And may the lesson thou dost teach, be never lost on me;
But still, in sunshine or in storm, whatever task is mine,
May I be faithful to my trust, as thou hast been to thine.

A. G. GREENE.

WHOEVER is not persuaded by reason, will not be convinced by authority.—FEYJOO.

ELECTRICITY.

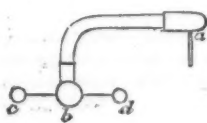
No. XI.

ELECTROMETERS.

IN operating with accumulated electricity, we ought to be able to estimate its effects; and on some occasions it is also desirable that we should measure the quantity we employ.

Let us describe one or two of the instruments commonly used for the above-mentioned purpose, and which are chiefly applicable to cases of merely popular illustration; and then we will notice some recent arrangements by which the quantity of electricity may be ascertained, and its force regulated, with the utmost accuracy and uniformity.

The annexed figure represents *Lane's Discharging Electrometer*, which consists of a rod of glass about nine inches in length, bent at a right angle and terminating as at *a* in a brass pin, by means of which



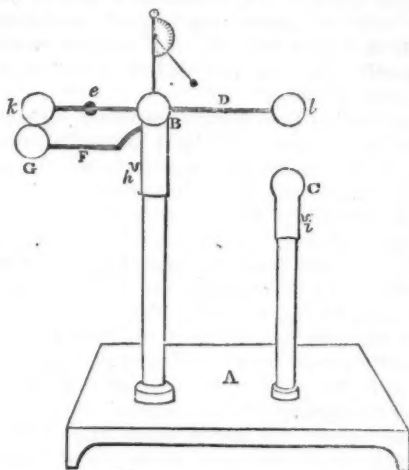
the instrument is fixed to the conductor of the machine. *b* is a brass ball, through the centre of which there passes a sliding rod with balls at each of its extremities. The action of this electrometer depends on the insulating properties of air. The manner of using it is as follows:—being attached to the conductor, as already described, the *outside* of the jar (or battery) is made to communicate with *c*, whilst the *inside* is connected with the machine in the usual way. The force of the charge is regulated by the distance at which *d* is placed from the conductor; and which, of course, is greater in proportion as that distance is increased. All things being arranged as just mentioned, we proceed to charge the jar (or battery), and when the accumulated electricity has acquired sufficient intensity to penetrate the air interposed between *d* and the nearest part of the conductor, a spontaneous discharge will ensue, and the electrical equilibrium be restored.

The instrument we have been describing is sometimes made of such a form as that it may be connected with a jar. It is then a convenient apparatus for communicating shocks in medical electricity.

It must be apparent, however, that the above electrometer affords, at the best, and whatever be its form, only a very imperfect means of estimating the effects of an electrical discharge. We have already shown that *quantity* and *intensity* of electricity are distinct conditions, although necessarily dependent in some respects on each other; the former referring to the actual amount of disturbance irrespective of the extent of surface over which it is distributed—the latter to the force exerted by the disturbed elements to regain their former state of repose. Now since the action of the instrument before us is determined solely by the intensity of the charge, and air, by the admixture of floating particles of dust, or of more than an ordinary proportion of moisture, being a less perfect insulator at one time than at another, it is obvious that with the most careful adjustment it is impossible to ensure, at different times, and under altered circumstances, exactly similar results. But notwithstanding these and some other disadvantages which it is not worth while to enumerate, this form of electrometer is very useful; and especially when the operator is engaged in a series of popular experiments, as it enables him to discharge a jar or battery without the aid of an assistant to turn the machine.

Here is an instrument more generally useful, as it is also more accurate in its indications than the one just described. It is called *Cuthbertson's Balance*

Electrometer. Let us first explain its various parts, and then its principle and mode of action. *A* is a mahogany stand, say fourteen inches long by six



wide, into which are fixed two strong glass pillars *B* *C*, the former of which must be about three inches longer than the other. To the top of each of these pillars are fitted spherical brass caps; a part of that on the longest pillar being moveable. *D* is a brass rod terminating in balls (*k l*) of the same metal and of equal sizes. This rod is supported at its centre by knife-edges, allowing it to move freely in a vertical plane in the same manner as a scale-beam. On one of the arms of *D* is a small sliding weight *e*, which gives a greater preponderance to that arm of the balance in proportion to its distance from the point of suspension. The space over which this weight moves is graduated, each division being equivalent to one grain. *F* is a bent brass rod fixed at one end to the cap on *B*, and so adjusted that by means of the ball *h* it supports *D* in its horizontal position. The small holes *h i* are for connecting the instrument with the opposite coatings of a jar or battery.

The action of this electrometer depends on the well-known law that bodies, similarly electrified, repel, and those, dissimilarly electrified, attract, each other. Its principle will, however, be easily understood by attending to the method of using it.

We will suppose that a charge of electricity of any given intensity is required from a battery, which is to be measured by the instrument now under consideration. Before we begin to charge the battery, the cap on the pillar *B* must be connected with the inside coatings of the jars, and this must be done (by means of a chain or wire) in such a manner that no part of the accumulated electricity be lost. The cap on the pillar *C* must communicate with the outsides of the jars, and at some convenient point in this latter part of the circuit must be placed the substance through which it is intended that the electrical charge should be transmitted*. These arrangements being completed, the weight *e* must next be adjusted, so that the charge may be sufficiently strong for the purpose required, and yet not too strong, as thereby to endanger any of the jars, which can, of course, be known only by previous experiment. As the balance-electrometer gives no indication of the progress of the charge until near its completion, and as the accidental fracture of a jar, the state of the atmosphere, or some unperceived defect in the apparatus may occasion delay and disappointment, it is best to em-

* See a description of the *Universal Discharger*, Vol. XIV., p. 116.

ploy *Henley's Quadrant Electrometer** in conjunction with *Cuthbertson's*; and it may be fixed to the conductor of the machine or to the cap on *B* as shown in the figure.

We may now proceed to work the machine, when the electricity excited by it will diffuse itself over those parts of the apparatus in metallic contact, namely the conductor, the battery, and the parts of the electrometer attached to the pillar *B*. If the arms of the balance had been adjusted *equally*, one or two turns of the machine would have caused the balls *k g* to separate, and the balls *l c* to unite; the result of mutual attraction and repulsion exhibited by bodies when in similar or in opposite states of electrical excitation. But the weight *e*, by giving a preponderance to that arm of the balance to which it is attached, and greater in proportion as its distance from the centre of suspension is increased, renders it necessary that the electricity should be accumulated, until the repulsive action induced between *k g* is sufficient to overcome the resistance of the weight, (and which may be varied from one to sixty grains,) and when that is accomplished, the balls separate, *l* descending at the opposite end until it strikes *c*, and thus the discharge is effected. The balance, immediately resuming its former position, is ready to measure another charge, equal in intensity (all the arrangements remaining the same) to the preceding one; and this it will do with considerable exactness, until a new adjustment be made.

Some of the objections made to *Lane's* electrometer apply with equal force to *Cuthbertson's*, and particularly that in reference to its being a measurer of intensity, not of quantity.

The latter is, however, the more sensitive instrument of the two, it is extremely simple in its operation, not soon affected by atmospherical changes, and so long as the surface of coated glass, with which it is connected, remains constant, it regulates the charge with a degree of accuracy quite sufficient for all practical purposes.

As we have not left ourselves space for describing, as we intended, some recently-invented instruments for measuring electricity, and which must, therefore, be the subject for a future paper, we shall conclude the present one with an account of a very useful electrometer, which is used, not for determining the quantity or intensity, but the kind (or state,) of electrical excitation in bodies.

The instrument here referred to, as represented in the accompanying figure, is *Bennet's Gold-leaf Electrometer*. It consists of a small glass jar, the cover of which is penetrated by a wire, supporting externally a metallic cap; and to the other end of it is attached two narrow slips of gold-leaf. By these simple means we can detect the existence, and determine the precise character of electrical excitations which occur in bodies under a great variety of circumstances, and which are induced by causes so comparatively unimportant, that they never attract the attention



of ordinary observers.

When an excited body approaches the cap of the instrument, the gold-leaves instantly diverge, (as shown in the figure,) and if the body so brought into proximity with it, be very highly excited, the leaves will be torn by the sudden shock. Hence it must be remembered that the electrometer before us is inten-

ded only for assisting in the investigation of very feeble currents of electricity.

To ascertain the character, that is, the kind (or state,) of electrical excitation we have to deal with, we proceed as follows:—When the gold-leaves are in a state of divergence, and we bring near the cap of the instrument a stick of excited sealing-wax, if the divergence continue or increase, it is a proof that the electricity is *negative*: if the leaves collapse, it is *positive*. By reversing the experiment we may decide the question still more satisfactorily;—thus, if we again cause the divergence of the leaves, and approach them with an excited glass-rod, if the character of the electricity be negative, the leaves will collapse,—if positive, the divergence will continue.

Some precautions must be observed in applying the before-mentioned tests, otherwise they may lead to erroneous conclusions. For instance;—in some cases, where the state of the electrometer is to be examined, it is necessary to approach it very gradually with the excited wax, or glass, and to watch attentively the first movements of the gold-leaves. Care must also be taken that the hand, or any other part of the operator, do not interfere with the experiment. Equally important is it that the excited bodies, that is, the one whose electricity we are examining, the electrometer, and the test we apply to it (wax or glass), should be kept at a proper distance from each other.

POVERTY and wealth have different temptations, but they are equally strong. The rich are tempted to pride and insolence: the poor to jealousy and envy. The envious and discontented poor invariably become haughty and overbearing when rich; for selfishness is equally at the bottom of these opposite evils. Indeed, it is at the bottom of all manner of evils.—MRS. CHILD.

TRUE humanity consists not in a squeamish ear; it consists not in starting or shrinking at tales of misery, but in a disposition of heart to relieve it. True humanity appertains rather to the mind than to the nerves, and prompts men to use real and active endeavours to execute the actions which it suggests.—CHARLES JAMES FOX.

IMAGINE a long tract of woodland spreading over a varied but not deeply indented surface, and covered with short broad oaks, thick hollies, and ragged thorns. On the hills and the declivities that sweep gently from them, are thickets of copse-wood, impervious in most places to the sun, and traversed only by the smaller beasts of prey. . . . Conceive, in one of these sylvan glades, a few rude huts, constructed of the branches and bark of trees, and seeming to be merely an outpost of the woodland, from which their materials have been taken; conceive the inhabitants of them, half covered with skins, and with their own thickly matted hair, to be basking in the broad sunshine, and gazing idly on the half-tamed herds which supply them with their food and clothing: and you have a picture of pastoral life, as it once existed in the uplands of ancient Britain.

What, then, before the final departure of the Romans from the island, and when their own empire was falling rapidly into decay, was the change which had gradually, but inevitably, followed? The wild herds of cattle, and their half-tamed owners, the deep forest and its savage hunters, the morass, with its scarcely human inhabitants, had been driven backward from public notice, or insensibly absorbed in the gradual increase of civilization. Instead of them appeared the populous city and the cultivated landscape, the toil of labour, and the discoveries of science, the splendour of opulence, and the debasement of pauperism, and a national character, which, still retaining its original fierceness and independence, and sometimes exalting them to the highest degrees of gallantry and self-devotion, had united and blended with them much of the knowledge and the refinements of their conquerors.—CARDWELL.

ENGLAND IN THE OLDEN TIME.

No. VII.

THERE is no pastime whatever which has existed more uninterruptedly among the better classes of English society, for several centuries, than *Hunting*. It is, allowing for accidents, one of the most healthy exercises in which a man may be engaged, and has a strong vein of excitement attached to it. Much diversity of opinion exists, as to whether hunting is, or is not, a cruel and improper sport. Persons will naturally argue according to the strength of their inclination for the sport. A sedentary student, quite removed from the bustle and enthusiasm attendant on a fox-chase, has time to ponder on the moral nature of the employment; while a country gentleman, to whom a fox-chase is as one of the sinews of life, never for a moment entertains the idea that his favourite sport is open to objection. The writer of this article being no sportsman, might, if he consulted his individual opinion, possibly designate hunting a cruel sport; but he cannot conceal from himself, that very many persons of amiable and humane dispositions, adopt sporting as one of their modes of recreation, when resident in the country. Instead, therefore, of expressing our own personal opinions, we will quote the following passage, from an excellent article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* :—

Our sensibilities towards the sufferings of animals are limited not only in wisdom, but in mercy, (for, increase our sensibilities, and who could live?); and let us not charge a sportsman with cruelty, because he is the destroyer of that part of the brute creation which it was evidently intended should be destroyed by some one. Sportsmen have existed, and must for ever exist, from necessity. They have extirpated some animals, and called out such as are serviceable to man, and submit to his will and government. Those that will submit are his friends—those that will not are his foes: and so it was intended to be, since the charge was given to Adam, and the subsequent commission to Noah. The sports of the field, indeed, as now followed, are generally allowed to have a tendency to improve and promote a free and generous conduct, as well as that manly spirit which is the very reverse of cruelty; and in the harmless exercise of our imagination, looking at that law of nature which enjoins the destruction of one animal for the good of another, so far from passing a hard sentence on the sportsman, we think, with the poet, that

His life is pure who wears no fouler stain.

In the present article we do not profess to give a treatise on hunting, but a few notices of it in connexion with England in the Olden Time.

The ancient Britons, like most other rude tribes, procured the greater part of their food by hunting: it is said that the inhabitants of the northern parts of the island, tilled no ground, but lived by the depredation which they committed in the southern districts, and by hunting. It was said by Strabo that the British dogs were highly esteemed on the continent, on account of their excellent qualities for hunting; and these qualities he appeared to think were natural to them, and not the effect of tutorage by their foreign masters. There is evidence that venison constituted the greater portion of the food of the Britons; and as they had in their possession such dogs as were naturally prone to the chase, there can be little doubt that hunting by the aid of dogs was a very favourite pastime, or rather employment, among them. Besides, they kept large herds of cattle, and flocks of sheep, both of which required protection from the wolves and other ferocious animals, that infested the woods and coverts, and must frequently have rendered hunting an act of absolute necessity. There appear to have been no restrictive laws respecting the killing of game in force in those days. Wild beasts, birds, and fishes, seem to have been the property of whoever

could catch them, during the occupancy of Britain by the Romans.

But when the Saxons came over into England, and assumed authority, a change occurred in this respect. The northern nations were much more addicted to field-sports than the Romans; and the nobles wished to arrogate to themselves the privileges and the facilities for hunting. Ultimately it became a privilege solely vested in the crown, and no one could hunt without the king's permission. It then became one of the most famous exercises of the titled and wealthy, and excited great emulation. We are told by Asser, that Alfred the Great, before he was twelve years of age, was "a most expert and active hunter, and excelled in all the branches of that most noble art, to which he applied with incessant labour; and amazing success."

When Athelstane, the grandson of Alfred, had obtained a signal victory at Brunanburgh, over Constantine, king of Wales, he imposed upon him a yearly tribute of gold, silver, and cattle, to which was also added a certain number of "hawks, and sharp-scented dogs, fit for hunting of wild beasts." The next sovereign, Edgar, remitted the pecuniary payment, on condition of receiving annually the skins of three hundred wolves.

The remarks made respecting the Saxons will apply with almost the same force to the Danes, who succeeded them in supremacy in England. When Canute the Dane had become firmly seated on the English throne, he imposed several restrictions upon the pursuit of game, which were not only very severe, but seem to have been altogether unprecedented; which may be considered as amply showing his strong attachment to this pastime; for, in other respects, his edicts were distinguished by a mildness and consideration for the amusements of the people generally.

After a short period, in which the Saxons again reigned in England, came the time of the Norman conquest. But we may here remark that Strutt has given two curious engravings, representing boar and swine-hunting among the Saxons, taken from old manuscripts.

Under William the Conqueror, severe laws were enacted respecting hunting. The privilege of hunting in the royal forests was not only confined to the king and his favourites; but in order to make the hunting-ground more capacious, whole villages were depopulated, and places of worship overthrown, without the least regard being paid to the miseries of the suffering inhabitants, or the cause of religion. William appropriated, in this manner, the New Forest in Hampshire; and his son, Henry the First, did the same at Woodstock park, which he enclosed by a stone wall, seven miles in extent. "In our time," says John of Salisbury, a writer of the twelfth century, "hunting and hawking are esteemed the most honourable employments, and most excellent virtues by the nobility; and they think it the height of worldly felicity to spend the whole of their time in these diversions. Accordingly they prepare for them with more solicitude, expense, and parade, than they do for war, and pursue the wild beasts with greater fury than they do the enemies of their country. By constantly following this way of life, they lose much of their humanity, and become as savage, nearly, as the very brutes they hunt. Husbandmen, with their harmless herds and flocks, are driven from their well-cultivated fields, their meadows, and their pastures, that wild beasts may range in them without interruption." Then speaking to his countrymen, he says:—"If one of these great and merciless hunters shall pass by your

habitation, bring forth hastily all the refreshment you have in your house, or that you can readily buy or borrow from your neighbours; that you may not be involved in ruin, or even accused of treason!" Here is a sad picture of the state of society in the Anglo-Norman times.

Among the forest-laws of these periods, it was enacted that all unqualified persons were subjected to very heavy fines, not only for hunting, but even for disturbing the game. If a gentleman, or an inferior thane, killed a stag in the royal forests, he was degraded from his rank: if a curl, or husbandman, committed the same offence, he was reduced to slavery, and if a slave killed one, he suffered death. Magistrates were appointed, in every county or shire, to put these laws in execution, and under them were appointed inferior officers, or gamekeepers, whose province it was to apprehend the offenders.

During the Norman period, the clergy used sometimes to follow the pastime of hunting to a greater extent than was thought consistent with their character; and a law was made, which prohibited any priest, or other clerk, not possessing a benefice to the yearly amount of ten pounds, from keeping a greyhound, or any other dog for the purpose of hunting; neither might they use ferrets, hayes, nets, hare-pipes, cords, or other engines, to take or destroy the deer, hares, or rabbits, under the penalty of one year's imprisonment. The higher orders of the clergy were altogether exempted from the operation of this statute; as the game-laws of Canute gave them great privileges in this respect.

It appears as if wolf-hunting was encouraged at an early period, for the purpose of ridding the island of those obnoxious animals. We have alluded to the terms of the treaty between Athelstane and the king of Wales. In the reign of William the Conqueror, Robert de Umfraville held the lordship of Riddlesdale in Northumberland, on condition of defending that part of the country from wolves. In the reign of Edward the Third, Thomas Engaine held lands at Pitchley in Northamptonshire, on condition of hunting the wolves from the midland counties. There are other grants of land dependent on similar conditions.

In another article we shall briefly notice the progress of hunting, from the time of Edward the Third to more modern periods.

SICKNESS is a sort of early old age; it teaches us a diffidence in our earthly state, and inspires us with thoughts of a future, better than a thousand volumes of philosophers and divines. It gives so warning a concussion to those props of our vanity, our strength and youth, that we think of fortifying ourselves within, when there is so little dependence upon our outworks. Youth, at the very best, is but a betrayer of human life in a gentler and smoother manner than age: 'tis like a stream that nourishes a plant upon a bank, and causes it to flourish and blossom to the sight, but at the same time is undermining it at the root in secret.

When I reflect what an inconsiderable little atom every single man is, with respect to the whole creation, methinks 'tis a shame to be concerned at the removal of such a trivial animal as I am. The morning after my exit, the sun will rise as bright as ever, the flowers will smell as sweet, the plants spring as green, the world will proceed in its old course, people will laugh as heartily and marry as fast as they were used to do. The memory of man (as it is elegantly expressed in the Book of Wisdom), passeth away as the remembrance of a guest that tarrieth but one day. There are reasons enough, in the fourth chapter of the same book, to make any young man contented with the prospect of death. "For honourable age is not that which standeth in length of time, or is measured by number of years. But wisdom is gray hair to man, and an unspotted life is old age. He was taken away speedily, lest wickedness should alter his understanding, or deceit beguile his soul."—Pope.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON, a talented writer and an estimable man, was born in Derbyshire in 1689, to which county his father had retired from the business of a joiner, in London. In very early life he was characterized by his love of reading, and while a mere boy he displayed the uncommon qualities of a taste for letter-writing, and for female society. At the age of thirteen he was so much in the confidence of three young females, as to be employed by them in making draughts of letters to their several correspondents; and at this early period, such were his fidelity and discretion, that not one of them suspected him to be the writer for the others.

When it became necessary for him to go out into the world, he was apprenticed to a printer, whom he served with great credit for the full term of seven years, stealing from the hours allowed for rest and recreation, his opportunities for mental improvement. He then passed some years as compositor, corrector, and foreman in a printing-office; and ultimately established himself in business on his own account, in Fleet Street. His habits of diligence and accuracy, and his honourable dealing, soon gained him employers and friends; and the superiority of his attainments to those of the generality of printers, caused him to be applied to by booksellers for making indexes, and writing prefaces and dedications. As his business increased, he thought himself in a condition to marry, and he accordingly married the daughter of his former master.

The circumstance which led to his becoming a novel-writer, was an application made to him by two booksellers, his intimate friends, to write for them a volume of letters in a familiar style, on subjects that might serve as models for the use of those who had not the talent of inditing for themselves. He extended the idea to the conveying of instruction in thinking and acting upon important occasions; and in composing some letters for the salutary purpose of teaching young females, who were going out to service, how to avoid the dangers into which they might be drawn, a story of a real occurrence which he had heard, came into his mind, and led to the production of *Pamela*. His fondness for letter-writing, led him to the then novel plan of writing a novel or story wholly by means of letters; a plan which he followed in two other novels, and which has frequently been adopted by subsequent writers.

In two months he completed the two volumes of which the work originally consisted, and in 1740 it was published. The reception it met with was enthusiastic: the novelty of the plan, the simplicity of the language, the natural and pathetic incidents of the story, and the sentiments of piety and virtue that it was his great object to inculcate, rendered it universally interesting, and made it an object of commendation, even from the pulpit.

Richardson's next work was *Clarissa*, the first two volumes of which appeared in 1748. This raised him to a high station in the estimation of literary persons. This tale attracted notice by the variety of its character, its minute developement of the movements of the human heart, the pathetic nature of some of its details, and the lofty image of female purity which it presents. The interest it excited during its progressive appearance, especially among female readers, was extraordinary: "the fate of no real personage could have agitated more bosoms than that of the fictitious heroine"—to use the words of Dr. Aikin. The work was spun out to a tedious length, no less than eight volumes; but that did not prevent it from bringing a high degree of reputation abroad

as well as at home. The style of writing so highly accorded with Rosseau's taste, that in a letter to D'Alembert, he said "nothing was ever written equal or approaching to it in any language." This excessive praise would probably meet with few supporters at the present day, however much the work may be admired.

His next novel was *Sir Charles Grandison*. In this, he wished to represent a perfect gentleman and Christian;—as he had before, in *Clarissa*, wished to portray a perfect model of female virtue. *Grandison*, was, however, less popular than *Clarissa*, perhaps because the novelty of his style had somewhat worn off and perhaps partly from the less-interesting nature of the story; and yet, as Aikin observes, *Grandison* is a work of more compass and invention, and the character of Clementina has, perhaps, no equal in delicate discrimination. Both of these works were translated into several foreign languages.

Acquisition of property accompanied the rise of his fame. In 1754, he became Master of the Stationers' Company; and in 1760, purchased a moiety of the patent of law-printer to the king. As he grew rich, he indulged himself with a country residence at Parson's Green.

In mixed society he was rather silent and reserved, and never got over the bashfulness incident to a man of feeling, and at the same time of humble origin; which reserve was rather strengthened than otherwise, by a great love of independence. Nothing however, could exceed his piety moral worth, and general benevolence.

He was carried off by apoplexy, in the year 1761, at the age of seventy-two, and was buried at St. Bride's Church, Fleet-street. He was twice married; and out of a large family reared four daughters, who survived him. He was the author of many miscellaneous works; but his fame rests upon his three novels—*Pamela*, *Clarissa*, and *Grandison*. But it must be confessed, at the present day, that these novels, despite their beauty, are somewhat wearisome, on account of their prolixity. *Grandison* and its predecessor occupy each several large volumes; and this, which has been often cited as a proof of the industrious genius of the author, might rather be referred to a feeling of vanity. With his wonderful powers of invention, it was easy for him to spread his story over a large space; but his vanity (fostered by the admiring female critics of his manuscripts) did not allow him to condense. In truth, we may well apply to Richardson the celebrated distich which Pope applied to Dryden:—

Even copious Dryden wanted, or forgot,
The last, and greatest art, the art to blot.

As his writings had rendered him a kind of patron of the female sex, he had many amiable young friends of that sex, who were frequent visitors at his house, and who formed a circle of affectionate admirers, in which it was his delight to read his works, in the progress of composition, and to attend to the remarks of his auditors. Several of these visitors were women of excellent understanding and varied accomplishments, and the circle was beyond comparison more respectable than that in which Swift passed his trifling and misanthropical old age.

The great failing of this otherwise excellent and amiable man was vanity. Dr. Johnson, whose pride was above the weakness of vanity, thus criticizes the subject of our sketch. We quote the words of Boswell. "I only remember that he (Johnson) expressed a high value for his talents and virtues, but that his perpetual study was to ward off petty inconveniences, and to procure petty pleasures; that his love of con-

tinual superiority was such, that he took care always to be surrounded by women, who listened to him implicitly, and did not venture to contradict his opinions; and that his desire of distinction was so great, that he used to give large vales to Speaker Onslow's servants, that they might treat him with respect."

This love of approbation, as may well be supposed, made Richardson acutely sensitive of criticism; and he had much that was severe to encounter. Fielding assailed him, and produced a work intended for a caricature, but which has none of the ephemeral nature of such productions. This work was *Joseph Andrews*, in which the peculiar mannerism of the author of *Pamela* is attacked with powerful ridicule.

The highest compliment that can perhaps be rendered to a writer of fiction, was paid to Richardson, a few years ago, in the following remarkable manner, as related by Sir John Herschel:—

I recollect (says he) an anecdote told me by a late highly respected inhabitant of Windsor, as a fact which he could personally testify, having occurred in a village where he resided several years, and where he actually was at the time it took place. The blacksmith of the village had got hold of Richardson's novel of *Pamela, or Virtue Rewarded*, and used to read it aloud in the long summer evenings, seated on his anvil, and never failed to have a large and attentive audience. It is a pretty long-winded book; but their patience was fully a match for the author's prolixity, and they fairly listened to it all. At length, when the happy turn of fortune arrived, which brings the hero and heroine together, and sets them living long and happily together, according to the most approved rules, the congregation were so delighted as to raise a great shout, and procuring the church-keys, actually set the parish bells ringing. Now let any one say whether it is easy to estimate the amount of good done in this simple case. Not to speak of the number of hours agreeably and innocently spent; not to speak of the good fellowship and harmony promoted, here was a whole rustic population fairly won over to the side of good,—charmed, and night after night spell-bound within that magic circle, which genius can trace so effectually, and compelled to bow before that image of virtue and purity, which (though at a great expense of words,) no one knew better how to body forth, with a thousand life-like touches, than the author of that work.



RICHARDSON'S HOUSE, AT PARSON'S GREEN.

HOWEVER individual persons may be gifted, those gifts, whilst they are made to be the instruments of public benefit, do not necessarily imply the excellence nor the happiness of their possessors.—J. S. M. ANDERSON.

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